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ABSTRACT

Arguing that instructional leadership changes are inevitable during the 1990s, this Bulletin explores instructional leaders' roles and functions, along with some leadership styles, strategies, and skills, and proposes an administrator training program. Chapter 1 introduces six "organizers" for examining instructional leadership: setting, situation, structure, style, strategies, and skills. The focus is on teaching as a complex activity within varying cultural, economic, legal, and social contexts. Chapter 2 considers four leadership roles: evaluator, critic, coach, and educator. Chapter 3 relates the characteristics of seven organization types to leadership behaviors. A table charts the historical progression from despotic to democratic governance forms. The leadership styles analyzed incorporate many of Hersey and Blanchard's designations, with a few additions at both extremes of the continuum. In programs based on collegial, collaborative precepts, principals must modify their "boss" role to become the team leader. Chapter 4 examines various teaching styles and strategies, along with styles of analyzing teaching. The ultimate choice is an energetic, cooperative, trusted confidant/analyst possessing unconditional positive regard for a teacher's potential. Chapter 5 proposes an administrator training program, outlining its content, essential techniques, and emphasis on curriculum. (12 references. (MLH)

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INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS FOR THE 1990s

Improving the Analysis of Teaching

Keith A. Acheson

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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Keith A. Acheson

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Preface

Instructional leaders and their trainers will find this Bulletin to be both stimulating and inspiring. With his engaging writing style and gift of metaphor, Professor Keith Acheson brings exceptional clarity to the roles, functions, and strategies of instructional leaders.

The author should be familiar to many readers. He has contributed to several previous OSSC publications as chronicled in the footnote on page 1. His career as an Oregon educator spans forty years, including twelve in public schools as teacher, coach, counselor, and department head in three districts—Jewell, North Bend, and Beaverton—and twenty-eight years in higher education: three at Stanford, three at Lewis and Clark, and twenty-two at the University of Oregon.

Professor Acheson's books on supervision are widely used throughout the world. His roles as professor, researcher, disseminator, and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management associate director have taken him to all the Northwest states, the western Canadian provinces, Samoa, Guam, as well as to many other school districts and universities in the United States.

This Bulletin builds on that experience and extends the notions of collaboration, a broader base of instructional leadership, and additional ways of dealing with a wide range of personnel issues that he has addressed in prior publications.

The influence of Acheson's work with the British Columbia Teachers' Federation (BCTF) Program for Quality Teaching (PQT) should be acknowledged. It represents an encouraging possibility for teacher organizations and school districts to cooperate on common goals, such as the improvement of instruction, teacher satisfaction, staff development, and inservice training.

Dr. Acheson's preparation of this Bulletin was supported by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, where he serves as associate director.

Philip K. Piele
Executive Secretary

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Introduction

The beginning of a new decade seems an appropriate time to take a fresh look* at the kind of instructional leadership that is needed in the coming years. This Bulletin will provide readers with one writer's view of some roles instructional leaders play, some functions they perform, and some leadership styles, strategies, and skills they may employ. Finally, it will consider "how to get there from here"—a proposed training program for instructional leaders.

The roles that will be considered are evaluator, critic, coach, educator, and mentor. The functions that will be emphasized are observation, analysis, interpretation, and feedback. The styles of leadership will incorporate Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) "tell," "sell," "participate," and "delegate," but will add "yell" and "hell" at one end and "liberate" and "abdicate" at the other. These styles will be compared with organizational structures ranging from competitive cold war through autocratic command, custodial, motivational and supportive, specialist, collaborative and collegial, to autonomous arrangements. Abdication will not be investigated as a reasonable leadership style.

The strategies instructional leaders can use will be compared with the strategies teachers employ, and the skills required for both jobs will be shown to be similar.

A good place to begin is to quickly review what has been typical in the past, consider what is happening at present, and then speculate about the future.

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*The Oregon School Study Council has published several works by the author: "A Central Role for Principals" (*OSSC Report*, Spring 1983); "The Principal's Role in Instructional Leadership" (*OSSC Bulletin*, April 1985); "It Is Time for Principals to Share the Responsibliity for Instructional Leadership with Others," with Stuart C. Smith (*OSSC Bulletin*, February 1986); and "Evaluation, Supervision, and Analysis of Teaching" (*OSSC Report*, Spring 1989). Several of these publications, including this one, were developed in cooperation with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management at the University of Oregon.

Instructional Leadership in the Past

In the United States instructional leadership originally was grounded in an inspectorial model. The role was conducted by what we would now call the school board, then by the superintendent of schools when schools became more numerous, then by the principal teacher (that is, principal), and in large schools by department heads or unit leaders.

The fact that these individuals usually have had the dual responsibilities of evaluation and staff development has inhibited the potential for teacher growth to result from supervisory observations or conferences. Teachers who feel threatened, intimidated, and vulnerable are not likely to take risks, experiment, accept critical feedback, and analyze and reflect on their teaching.

Current Trends

Today, in many schools, there is an emphasis on teachers working with "peers" (rather than "superiors") for the purpose of enhancing their effectiveness through the development or fine-tuning of skills, strategies, and knowledge of teaching.

Some important distinctions are developing among various applications of the peer concept. Peer coaches, peer consultants, collegial collaborators, mentors, and master teachers may play roles that are quite different in some fundamental and important ways.

Future Prospects

This Bulletin is based on an assumption that the forms of leadership provided for teachers will continue to change, indeed *must* change, in the decade of the nineties. The prevailing trend, we predict, will be away from autocratic, centralized leadership toward democratic, collaborative arrangements, even though there are strong forces operating in the opposite direction.

The fundamental leadership task that will be emphasized here is helping teachers to *analyze* and *reflect* on their teaching in ways that will improve their effectiveness and satisfaction.

Let's begin our analysis by looking at the framework within which leaders of teachers must function. Chapter 1 introduces six S's that will serve as organizers for looking at instructional leadership: setting, situation, structure, style, strategies, and skills.

Chapter 1

The Framework for Analyzing Teaching

Most will agree that teaching is a complex activity; hence, it can be analyzed in many ways. In order to analyze our own or someone else's teaching for the purpose of enhancing, enriching, and improving it, however, we need a relatively simple framework for organizing our thoughts and for arranging the information (data) we have available. The framework I have chosen is as follows.

1. *The setting*—What are the cultural, economic, political, governmental, legal, and social contexts in which the teaching is taking place?
2. *The situation*—Where is the teacher coming from in relation to the demands of the job? Is the teacher a beginner, experienced but new to the district, old and burned-out, solid, or working with a new principal?
3. *The structure*—Within what kind of an organization is the teacher working? Is it dictatorial, autocratic, feudal, supportive, collaborative, autonomous, or abdicative?
4. *The style*—What style of learning, behaving, and leading fits this teacher, and if the teacher is analyzing in collaboration (or conflict) with a colleague (or critic), then how does that person's style affect the interaction?
5. *The strategies*—What are the models or ways of teaching the teacher uses to reach the goals that have been chosen, and if a colleague is involved, what are the strategies *that* person is using to work with the teacher?
6. *The skills*—Which explicit techniques (observable behaviors) does the teacher use to deal with students, and what techniques does the colleague use to deal with the teacher?

Another framework that journalists find useful may help us to set the scene—the interrogatives who, what, where, when, why, and how. In our scenario the "who" is the teacher, but there is often *another* "who" involved as evaluator, supervisor, coach, mentor, colleague, or friend. How these people typically behave and how they interact can be analyzed and modified just as teaching can.

The "what" is the teaching, that which happens between teacher and student in relation to learning and the content of instruction.

The "where" is related to what we have labelled "setting," "situation," and "structure," but it also pertains to where the analysis takes place. Our emphasis in the past (Acheson and Gall 1980) has been on the feedback session between an observer and a teacher (postobservation conference), but if we treat the analysis of teaching as a *reflective* activity, the "where" is *inside* the teacher's head and the "when" may be *during* the teaching, *before* the conference, *in* the conference, *after* the conference, *at* the supermarket, *during* sleep, *in* a meeting, *despite* a conversation. These "wheres" can also be thought of as "whens."

Another "when" needs to be emphasized; that "when" is "often." We probably hear and see more systematic analysis of football (or hockey, basketball, baseball) and movies (ballet, opera, books) than we do of teaching, particularly our own. We undertake unsystematic analyses of the "Gee Whiz!" or "Good Grief!" type ("Gee, it was wonderful" or "Gosh, it was awful"), but analysis of the type advocated here occurs too seldom in most schools and for most teachers.

The "why" of analysis is growth. This may consist of fine-tuning existing skills, developing and practicing new ones, experimenting with an expanding repertoire of strategies, or overcoming a troublesome deficiency.

The "how" of analysis has a number of stages, each of which calls for various strategies and skills. These stages include goal setting, planning for observations and other forms of data collection, observing and recording, providing feedback, interpreting what is happening, making decisions about modifications, and then acting on the decisions. The process then recycles.

Also contained in the "how" are the explicit (observable) behaviors that the teacher and a colleague use while analyzing teaching. I shall call these *skills* or *techniques*, implying that they can be learned, practiced, improved upon, fine-tuned. Many of these techniques can be classified as "interpersonal skills," but there are many more: knowledge of content and context, understanding of human growth and development, familiarity with a range of teaching strategies and models, capacity for introspection, and willingness to take risks, to experiment, and to tolerate another's style and idiosyncrasies.

Chapter 2

Leadership Styles and Roles

Our first look at style will be concerned with leadership. Hersey and Blanchard have developed a schema that relates human interactions with task accomplishment and structure. Leaders who are high on task but low on relationships will tend to *tell* their followers what to do. Leaders high on task but also high on relationships will try to *sell* their followers on what they ought to do. Those who are lower on task and structure but high on relationships will tend to *participate* or collaborate with their troops. Persons who do not have a high commitment either to task or relationships can feel comfortable if they *delegate* the task to someone else.

In order to expand the scope of leadership styles to cover the range of structures (school organizations) that will be described later, let us consider what might lie beyond *sell* and *tell* on the continuum of structure (control) and getting the task done. Obviously, *yell* and *hell* are candidates if only for the sake of rhyme. Another way of expressing the shift from "sell" (persuasion) to "tell" (giving orders) and "yell" (issuing commands) and "hell" (dictatorship) is to think of the words "indirect" to "direct." Other words we commonly use to express this distinction are "controlling" or "dominating" as contrasted with their opposites. Organizations such as schools, colleges, political parties, churches, and clubs can be ranged along this continuum.

At the other end of the continuum a leader may go beyond *participating* with teachers in planning and conducting staff development, even beyond *delegating* the responsibility. If teachers are mature, independent, autonomous, and competent, then *liberating* them from some of the rituals of bureaucratic behavior may be in order. I shall not advocate *abdicating* the responsibilities of leadership altogether, though most of us have seen it happen in schools and governments.

There are a variety of names for the roles that leaders might play within the framework:

evaluator	supervisor	peer
judge	coach	colleague

critic	tutor	collaborator
inspector	mentor	consultant
referee	teacher	connoisseur

Let us take a more detailed look at a few of these leadership roles.

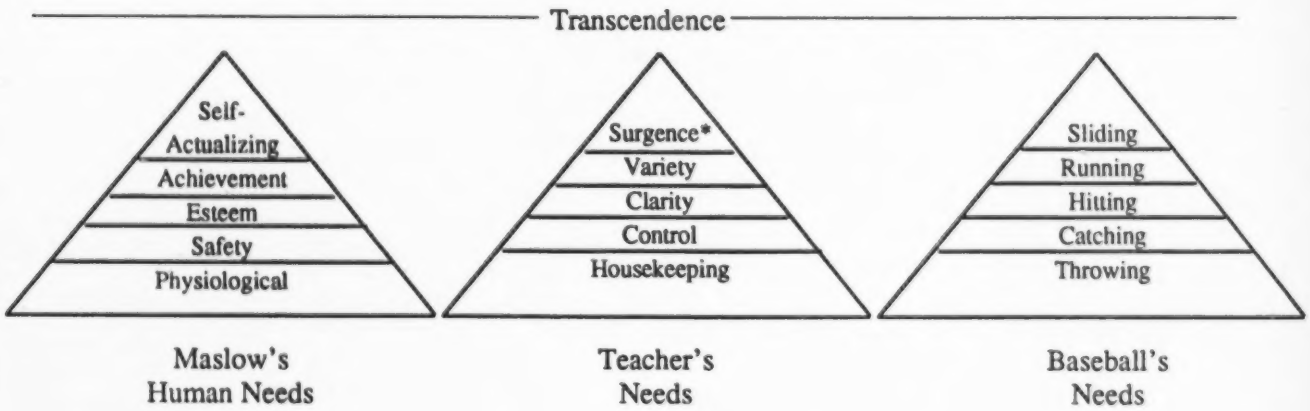
Role of the Leader as Evaluator

In Olympic skating the judges (analysts) are quite clear on whether they are watching speed skating, figure skating (both required and interpretive), or hockey. In analyzing teaching we have not been so clear. There is as much difference among direct instruction, inquiry, and T Groups as there is among figure skating, speed skating, and hockey.

The kinds of events in which one skis for awhile, shoots a rifle, jumps on a bike, swims, runs, jumps, and then does somersaults come closer to what we're after in analyzing teaching. Moses reported out a decathlon set of criteria. Before him, Hamurabi had identified seven. Since then Hunter has gone back to seven. Let's go for five: the pentathlon of teaching. Using Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of human needs (physiological, safety, esteem, achievement, and self-actualizing) as a model, let us arbitrarily select housekeeping, control, clarity, variety, and "surgence" as our hierarchy of teaching needs (see figure 1).

A similar hierarchy exists in baseball: throwing, catching, hitting,

Figure 1: Three Sets of Needs in Ascending Order of Importance



* Enthusiasm for students and subject matter

running, and sliding. Sliding is the self–actualizing, surgent, quintessence of the game. If you can slide into second, kick the ball out of the second baseman's hands, steal third (the same way), and then steal home, you can make up for the fact that your teammates don't throw, catch, hit, or run well. Making judgments about the merits of Ty Cobb or Willie Mays, then, is relatively straightforward. You analyze the statistics on throwing, catching, hitting, running, and sliding.

Above each of the hierarchies there is room for transcendent needs (or metaneeds). Maslow discusses these in *The Farther Reaches of Human Nature* (1971). Aspiring to reach this level as an instructional leader may be overly ambitious for most of us (who are even having difficulty with self–actualization, surgence, and sliding). However, high levels of expectation are generally more useful than low ones.

The role that emerges from the foregoing discussion is that of judge or evaluator. The essential task is to apply standardized criteria to a product or performance and then proclaim its relative goodness. Analysts of teaching have fewer standardized criteria and their measures are less clear than those of, say, analysts of baseball. One can, however, make gross judgments on our pentathlon for teaching. For example:

Housekeeping—could range from deplorable to commendable.
Control—could range from chaotic to consummate.
Clarity—could range from totally lacking to crystalline.
Variety—could range from missing altogether to bountiful.
Surgence—could range from apathetic to exuberant.

Putting each of these on a scale from 1 to 5 would create a list that might solve the problem of summative evaluation, but it would not be very useful for a teacher who is interested in fine-tuning skills, enlarging a repertoire of strategies, or adapting styles to individual needs.

Role of the Leader as Critic

An observer and an observee each take on a role in the drama of planning, observing or being observed, and giving or receiving feedback from the observation. The range of roles an observer might assume are described from a leadership perspective (because of the traditional view of supervisors as observers), though it is possible (indeed preferable) that the observer be a peer, colleague, collaborator, coach, consultant, or even protege student.

To begin we might note what kinds of observers record, critique, or otherwise take part in the analysis of other professionals. Actors have coaches, directors, critics, commentators; so do athletes. Doctors have clinical professors, colleagues, peer review teams. Lawyers have judges, juries, arbitrators, panels, and other spectators who watch their performance.

They also have colleagues who provide feedback. Engineers get feedback on whether their bridges fall down, whether anyone buys their designs, and who bids for their services. Researchers have their reports "refereed" before they are published in scholarly journals. Authors have their work reviewed by editors before publication. My experience is that editors of educational tomes send the work to be reviewed by other authors (sometimes even competitive, envious, invidious, treacherous ones).

This brings us back to peer review. When the vicious aspects are removed, genuine peer review is the best form of feedback. If you are a wizard by vocation you don't especially want feedback from bumpkins; you want it from other wizards. Authors have their work examined critically *after* publication through book reviews. The list could go on; ballet, opera, sculpture, painting, and the other visual and performing arts all have their critics, commentators, and connoisseurs. These analysts often separate a performance into its technical and artistic aspects—figure skating provides a very clear example.

Teaching also has its technical aspects, many of which can be measured or quantified. It also has qualitative or artistic aspects; these dimensions are much more difficult to scale. The image of Olympic teaching judges holding up numbers for technical and artistic achievement comes to mind. Until teachers have such panels, they must be satisfied with the critical analysis given by their supervisor or evaluator. I have seen cases where the critic's competence to assess what is taking place in the classroom was in question.

Role of the Leader as Coach

What might an outstanding coach do instead of merely marking a five–point checklist? Let's begin with an analogy. Here is Digby Duffer who wants a lesson from the golf club pro. "Digger" slices, takes his eye off the ball during the downswing, bends his elbow, dips his shoulder, doesn't rotate his hips, etcetera, etcetera. Peter Par, the pro, has to focus on what Digby needs to address first; he knows you can't work on everything at once. Discussions of what are the best shoes, tees, or clubs won't help Digby much, nor will the merits of the pitch and roll vs. the chip and spin. This Duffer needs to begin with hitting the ball (not the turf) with the club (not the caddy) on the downswing (not the backswing). Now, compared to teaching, golf is a piece of cake! For instance, consider the following section.

Role of the Leader as Educator

The object of the golfer's intentions sits there (on the tee, grass, or sand), immobile, inarticulate, neither cooperative nor defiant.

Suppose your golf ball could hop off the tee at the last instant, mutter

disparaging remarks about your best effort, go home, and tell its dad that you abused it. Assume it could carry a genetic weakness of intellect (about following its direction toward the green) that its politically powerful parents refuse to recognize or admit. Well sir, Mr. Peter Pro, thank your lucky stars. Imagine having these creatures thirty at a time to address.

Most educators have to deal with groups of individuals who vary a great deal in personality, temperament, needs, talents, and interests. Those who are instructional leaders must deal with individual differences among teachers just as teachers must cope with individual differences among students. We can range these individual differences along a continuum as we did with leadership styles. However, before doing that we need to recognize that the organizations within which people function have their own diverse characteristics. Chapter 3 relates those organizational characteristics to instructional leadership.

Chapter 3

Leadership and Organizational Structure

The way organizations are structured influences how the members will behave. In table 1 we see a number of factors that are affected by the nature of the organization.

Starting with the autocratic command column one can see historical progression from despotic to democratic forms of governance. Communication patterns move from "down only" to "up and down" and then "across." How we deal with differences can vary from not recognizing them to treating them as data.

Analyzing teaching in a school that is run by autocratic command will differ from analysis of teaching in a collaborative, collegial school. The norms for behavior that exist for the school will be reflected in the classroom. The range of teaching behaviors will be limited by what is sanctioned by the administration.

In the organization labelled "Think Tank," the members are all "transcendent" in the sense that they are at or above the self-actualizing level. The organization depends on the individual contributions they are making to society. Let's assume they are all Nobel Laureates, the leaders in their respective fields. Would it make sense to have them punch a time clock, or be closely supervised to make certain they are "working"?

Rather than to "boss," the management role is to provide support and resources to further the endeavors the members choose. The role of the member is to be a unique specialist "doing your own thing" using the creative zeal and insight that led to being selected for this role. The communication patterns are bound to be "across." The notion of talking down to a colleague or taking a problem "up" to the boss seems alien. It is interesting to speculate on how differences are handled in such organizations. I suspect that unresolved issues and contradictory opinions would result in books by each of the contestants arguing their case in a broader forum.

Table 1: Characteristics of Seven Kinds of Organizations

	Liberate	Delegate	Participate	Sell	Tell	Yell	Hell
	Transcendent (ThinkTank)	Specialist division of labor	Collegial Collaboration	Supportive (Motivational)	Custodial (Maintenance)	Autocratic Command System	Competitive Cold War
Depends on	Individual contribution to society	Specialized competence	Cooperation	Leadership	Economic resources	Power	Winning
Management based on	Providing resources and support	Integration	Togetherness	Support	Material rewards	Authority	Glory
Employee status	Autonomous	Expert	Responsibility	Performance	Security	Obedience	Contestant
Employee psychological result	Self-actualizing and altruistic	Doing your thing	Self-discipline	Participation	Organizational dependency	Personal dependency	Free-floating hostility
Employee needs met	Seeing the effects	Achievement	Self-realization	Higher-order	Maintenance	Subsistence	Victories
Morale measure	Continuing to work doing own thing	Production	Commitment to task and team	Motivation	Satisfaction	Compliance	Ethnocentrism
Basic roles	Unique specialist	Nominal peers Specialty-related	Colleagues Task-related	Partners	Benevolent owner Grateful subject	Boss and Subordinate	Competitors
Basic skills	Creativity, surgence, insight	Specialty and complementary	Specialty plus interdisciplinary and collaboration	Serving as a model or good example for others	Majestic wisdom and judgment Obedience and compliance	Boss: managing, directing, evaluating Sub: listening, doing, reporting	One-upmanship, debating, blaming and compromising
Nature of relationship	Mutual respect	Polite and respectful	Open, trusting Developing Informal, personal	A Covenant	Noblesse oblige Paternalistic allegiance	Status-determined Formal Impersonal	Impersonal Distant Mistrustful
Power distribution	Shared	Nominal half-and-half All power is in own area	Nominal half-and-half Flexible according to task need	Shared Delegated	Controlled Bestowed	Fixed: boss has it all	Nominal half-and-half Used to counter and cancel each other
Communication	Across	Task focused Restrained	Mutual	Across Friendly	Up and Down	One Way	Across Hostile Distorted
How differences are handled	Writing an article or book	Avoidance Compartmentalized into discipline areas	In Open Used as information for problem solving	Negotiated	Mediated by the liege	Not recognized	To spar and wage war indirectly through task

Note: All words that are not in bold are from Maslow (1971), attributed to Keith Davis in *Human Relations At Work*, 3rd Edition (1967) and Grinnell (1979). Words in bold are insertions by the author, and the term "Free-floating hostility" is from Friedman and Rosenman (1974). Source: Acheson (1982).

The *motivational* organization is well illustrated by many of the service clubs that do good things for communities and develop leadership for worthwhile projects. The supportive form of organization emphasizes cooperation, congeniality, and shared (revolving) leadership. Differences are negotiated through democratic procedures—debating and voting.

The *collegial/collaborative* organizations, at least in education, exist more on paper than they do in school buildings. One is more likely to see mere congeniality than genuine collegiality or collaboration. There is clearly a trend toward this kind of organization in education but one is much more apt to find feudal institutions out there than the kind outlined in the table.

The *autonomous* form of organization is much more suitable for a think tank than the more directive forms of organization.

Some Examples of Organizational Forms

The kinds of organizations represented in the table exist in many forms. For an example of an autocratic command system one could study the Ford Motor Company when Henry, Sr. was at the helm or analyze the Family Saud in present-day Arabia.

The custodial or maintenance system functioned throughout the middle ages, based on land ownership. In present-day China the word for "feudal" is used to describe the more conservative citizens. The supportive, motivational organization can be examined on given days of the week at the luncheon meetings of service clubs. Many student organizations operate along similar lines.

Two examples leap to mind to illustrate the specialist division of labor: a medical clinic and a university. A number of modern-day electronic firms combine the compartmentalization of specialists with the autocratic tendencies of the two owners who invented their blidget in a garage a few years ago.

The competitive cold war takes over in specialist organizations when there is a budget crunch followed by a scramble for scarce resources. Some universities have had an uncommon amount of experience with this state of affairs.

Collegial collaboration is the form of organization preferred by most educational writers who have been studying school organizations in recent years. It also represents what a number of writers see as the evolving nature of the relationships teachers are seeking with their peers and colleagues (as opposed to traditional supervision and evaluation arrangements). In a number of my graduate courses and workshops, practicing teachers and administrators have been asked if they know of schools that are operated as either autocratic, custodial, supportive, specialist, competitive, or collegial institutions. The answer, in general, appears to be "all of the above."

Effect of Organizational Structure on Role of Leader

What is the effect of the organizational structure on the role of the supervisor or evaluator of teachers? It is a profound one. In programs based on collegial, collaborative precepts, school principals must modify their role as "boss" to become the team leader. The communication patterns also change from "top down" to "across." The ways differences are handled also tend to follow the table, that is, in a collaborative setting they are treated as data to be discussed, whereas in the autocratic setting there are no differences (the boss has all the answers).

The autonomous organization appears to be the kind of arrangement many teachers would like—the function of the administration is not to manage what people will do but to provide assistance to the laureates who are doing the work of the organization, that is, teaching. Going a step beyond autonomy, of course, one can find anarchy. These different points of view enter into another variable as well—strategies of teaching.

The effect of the structural variable on the context in which teaching will be analyzed is important and unavoidable. Thinking in a concentration camp differs from concentrating in a think tank. Instructing in Summerhill is not the same as instructing at Annapolis.

Discussion of differences implies disagreement. Being able to disagree is not the same as being disagreeable. In the collegial, collaborative organization disagreeable people may be as disruptive as they are in any other organization. One trait of being disagreeable is always to look for what is wrong without recognizing what is good, what is working well, what is commendable.

The instructional leader of the nineties will have to handle disagreements among teachers, between teacher(s) and leader(s), and within a single individual (who will likely become disagreeable as the result of internal conflict). Thus we realize the need for leaders who can be conciliators, negotiators, and therapists. The effects of personal style on these situations are examined in chapter 4.

Chapter 4

Understanding Teaching Styles and Strategies

Style is an overarching variable in teaching. Individuals who are comfortable being low-key in their private lives are unlikely to do well being bombastic in their professional roles. Autocratic, domineering, linear individuals have a difficult time allowing students to discover through heuristic teaching strategies. However, in education as well as in writing, the elements of style can be modified. The delightful book *Elements of Style* (Strunk and White 1979) can help a writer turn long, contorted sentences (and thoughts) into shorter, straightforward ones. Similarly, teachers who communicate little enthusiasm can learn to do so through training, practice, and feedback. Other modifications of inherent style seem possible.

Classifications of Styles

Style enters into the analysis of teaching at three levels. If there is an observer (supervisor, colleague, mentor, evaluator), then the inherent style of that individual will be involved. The variations of style among teachers (and within an individual) must be recognized. Finally, the styles of the learners in the teaching situation must be considered.

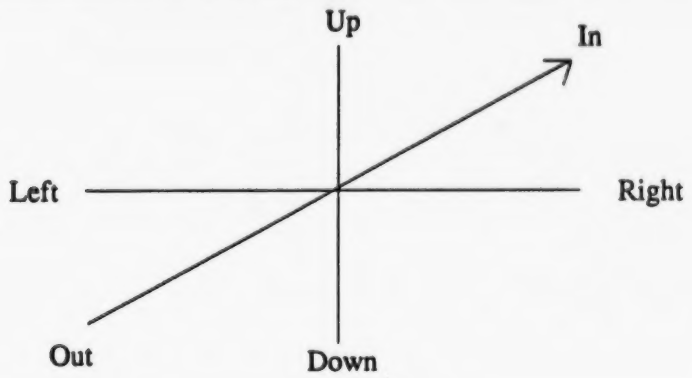
There are numerous schemes for categorizing personal styles, learning styles, leadership styles. I shall consider only a few in relation to the analysis of teaching. Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) categories have already been mentioned, expanded, and related to different kinds of organizations that are part of the context of teaching.

Gregorc (1982) has suggested and elaborated "concrete sequential," "abstract sequential," "concrete random," and "abstract random."

The Myers/Briggs Type Indicator looks at extroversion/introversion, sensing/intuiting, thinking/feeling, and judging/perceiving (Meyers and McCaulley 1985).

Many of the characteristics of style can be ranged along the continuums displayed in figure 2. I have arbitrarily chosen to mark it "right" and "left"—as in politics and religion—with order, orthodoxy, and authority to the right and liberal, experimental, autonomous values on the left.

Figure 2: Continuums of Style



A second dimension, which can be marked as "up" or "down" (high or low), runs from "surgence" to "apathy."

The third dimension, for our purposes, runs from "out" to "in" and represents the degree of involvement that an individual has in a given activity.

Thus, in the case of an educational innovation such as team teaching, peer coaching, or cooperative learning, a teacher or a principal may have conservative enthusiasm and modest involvement. Another may have super and liberal enthusiasm but minimal involvement.

Let's label these dimensions as follows:

HIGH——LOW	enthusiasm for the idea
RIGHT——LEFT	attitude toward change
IN———OUT	direct involvement

It appears, then, that the HIGH/LEFT/IN people will lead the way. LOW/RIGHT/OUT folks will not be helpful. HIGH/LEFT/OUT individuals may lead cheers but won't participate in substantial ways.

Strategies of Teaching

We have looked at differences in style as they affect leadership behavior, organizational structure, and individual preferences. Another key vari-

able that affects the behavior of teachers working with students (and also leaders working with teachers) is the strategy (or "game plan") they have in mind. These strategies have many names: for example, demonstration, discovery, didactic, heuristic. We shall continue to use a right and left alignment of these variations with direct strategies to the right and indirect ones to the left.

For those who prefer a structured approach to learning, didactic strategies have great appeal. They also resonate with teachers who prefer telling to delegating. There are times and situations when direct instruction is the strategy of choice. Advocates of direct instruction see these times as almost always, and these situations as rampant. On the other hand, proponents of heuristic, discovery approaches to teaching see their favorite strategies as nearly always useful. My position is that there are times when a didactic tactic (telling) is best; in other situations, providing an appropriate experience to learn something "on your own" (delegating) is preferable. In other milieus, helping, maieutic ("midwifing") procedures (participating) would be best. In some instances (especially when everyone in the group is at least self-actualizing), transcendent or "big picture" considerations should come to the fore. Sometimes persuasion (selling) is appropriate.

The number of permutations and combinations of the variables we've listed thus far is staggering. However, they tend to coalesce along the structural dimension of our model. So, Ghengis prefers helling; Carl favors discovering; Seigfried uses telling; Hilda likes inquiry. As analysts, instructional leaders should be more open to appreciate wider variations among these models and among the people who use them than they typically have been.

My sixty-year career as an analyst, starting as participant observer (student) in a Montessori kindergarten and including forty years as a teacher in schools, colleges, and universities, has revealed despots, bosses, snoopervisors, consummate consultants, trusted peers, crafty consultants, greedy gourmets, caustic critics, conceited connoisseurs, compleat coaches, and obdurate observers. It has disclosed shouters, pouters, cajolers, pejorators, implorers, imploders, molders, moulders, jumpers and bumpers, pleaders and plodders. Based on this experience, it seems unlikely that we shall develop a standardized model of the ideal analyst, nor shall we standardize the ideal teacher.

What was simple and focused when the book *Techniques of Clinical Supervision* (Acheson and Gall 1980) was first written—planning for observation, observing and recording, then giving feedback from the observation—has become more complex because of the persistent requirement that supervisors provide summative evaluation of teaching (for accountability) as well as formative information (for development, growth, analysis).

Our resolution of this dilemma (Acheson and Gall 1987) has been to put planning, observation, and feedback in an expanded schema that also includes the following concepts and activities: district standards (or criteria

of effective teaching), job descriptions (consideration of the unique situation), goal setting, formal evaluation (report writing), programs of assistance for teachers with serious deficiencies, and consideration of contracts, grievances, arbitration, hearings, and litigation. The key element within all these activities is the process of analyzing teaching.

Analysis and Analysts

To analyze something one must bring out the essential elements and examine them critically so as to determine the essence of the object being analyzed. If the object of our analysis is a particular piece of teaching, what sorts of elements will we seek to examine? We shall consider several aspects of this process, starting with who does it.

Kinds of Analysts

The *coach* is looking for the presence of certain prescribed behaviors and the elimination of other, undesirable behaviors. Coaching, therefore, often becomes didactic, prescriptive, judgmental, and direct. Examples include Vince Lombardi ("Winning isn't everything; it's the only thing." "Nice guys finish last").

The *mentor* is looking for behavior that fits a more generalized model or ideal. Hence, mentoring often becomes heuristic, tolerant, benign, and indirect. Examples of learners who have been "mentored" would include Voltaire's Candide (1948), some apprentices, and all proteges. Some mentors are as direct, demanding, and dictatorial as some *masters* who are primarily interested in the products of the behavior, that is, whether the work is getting done, not how. Others are most interested in seeing the work done a particular way. Examples of the two extremes are "Jimmy crack corn and I don't care. My Master's gone away," and Segovia master classes.

The *critic* is aware of the elements of a performance but is especially concerned with the total effect of all the elements. Examples are Siskel and Ebert on movies.

I distinguish *maestro* from master in the sense that the maestro has a certain magic that weaves the elements together in a way that would please a critic, whereas the master could be a "straw boss" who simply gets the job done, without finesse. Examples of maestros in music are Toscaninni and Bernstein. Examples of masters in the military are Grant and Patton.

A *wizard* is another kind of analyst who has a gift for sizing up the situation or problem in a unique way and then applying a strategy or solution no one else would have thought of. Examples should include Merlin and Machiavelli.

There are many ways of classifying the strategies of analysis that can be used and labeling those who use them. Let's look at a few in a lighthearted way.

Examples of Analysts

Ologists. Psychologists, musicologists, opthomologists, and proctologists delve into our psyches, senses, and orifices. Their analysis may be for the purpose of understanding something better, fixing it, or merely meddling with it.

Ists. Educationists, columnists, and orthodontists typically try to put a new twist on something. This can be useful if it helps us to perceive more clearly or look better.

Ics. In our culture we have persons called "critics" who judge paintings, poems, pottery, terpsichory, and other forms of artistry and then comment on them in an analytic, interpretive manner to help those of us with less knowledge or experience add to or detract from our appreciation of these artistic expressions. We also have cynics and leaders who are cryptic (they sum it all up in one sentence).

Ators. Commentators, aviators, and educators are examples of ators. We have ators who comment on sports, music, travel, or people. Some can make serious concerts more enjoyable; others analyze whole countries for our edification, enjoyment, and intellectual enrichment. Some manage to tell you more than you want (or need) to know about a particular event. Aviators who are captains on airlines may comment on the scenery or weather, which is nice provided that somebody is flying the plane.

Ants. Our favorite ants, in the spirit of this monograph, are the confidants with whom we entrust our secret wishes. The accountants who record our expenditures, excesses, and follies are not among the favored.

Looking at what has been said thus far from the point of view of a teacher whose teaching is being analyzed, the preferred "ic" is sympathetic and if he is a critic he is a friendly critic. The "ator" of choice is *not* an evaluator nor a procrastinator, but a perseverator (who will help you stick with it until you get it right). A collaborator (who collaborates with you, not with the enemy) will be welcome. Strategists will be more useful than pathologists in most cases. Pathologists are trained to look for what's wrong and how to fix it. Those of us who teach don't care to have our teaching viewed as pathological. An "ant" we can do without is the sycophant.

Our ultimate choice is a consultant, an energetic, cooperative, competent, respected, trusted confidant who has "unconditional positive regard" for our potential. Let's call this ideal person an *analyst*. The person may be a peer or a principal.

What conclusions can we draw about instructional leadership that emphasize analysis of the sort that has been discussed? Let's agree that we have access to the resources we need—videotape equipment, expert colleagues who can be trusted, and all other necessities.

Moreover, our analyst has a style that is compatible with ours, uses strategies that we're comfortable with, and has all the knowledge and skill necessary to get the job done. Now we're ready to train for winning the

Olympic Gold Medal for Teaching (which, you'll remember, is a pentathlon event; we've got to score a lot of points in housekeeping, control, clarity, variety, and surgence).

Does it sound as if we've taken care of everything? This trusted, respected, competent, compatible colleague (leader) will plan with us, help us devise a strategy (or strategies) for our growth, take the time to observe us fairly often, and record useful information that we can use to analyze and modify what we are doing so that we can find satisfaction in the improvement we are witnessing.

Let's compare the help a teacher typically receives with the pointers a world-class coach gives an Olympic athlete. Does the coach, who can barely make it to the next corner without gasping, berate and belittle the athlete who just set a new world record? Does the coach observe the athlete twice a year? How do they communicate, by memo? Where do they meet? When do they meet (a week after the observation)? No! Olympic athletes, even university athletes, get immediate feedback on their performance from world-class analysts. They receive this often. They have chances to try out changes before they are ultimately (summatively) evaluated.

Chapter 5

A Proposed Training Program for Instructional Leaders

Some of the requirements to reach our goals for the decade as instructional leaders are to improve the training of preservice teachers (undergraduates preparing to teach), provide mentor support for beginning teachers, and give reasonable staff development opportunities to inservice teachers. Supervisors, evaluators, and self-analyzers all need to know how to plan; observe; analyze; give (and take) feedback; and interpret, make decisions about, modify, and implement a variety of styles, strategies, and skills with regard for the setting, situation, and structure in which they are functioning.

Creating a new pool of instructional leaders implies training. If training is to be more than piecemeal, a curriculum is called for. Curricula usually evolve instead of being planned systematically. They may depend upon tradition, territoriality, or whim. They may also be dominated by state certification requirements or other outside agencies. The curriculum of a given specialization is also dependent on what faculty members are available to teach it. We often design a new curriculum by putting together a new combination of existing courses.

Let's assume that we are free of the constraints mentioned in the previous paragraph. That is, we are able to plan a comprehensive training program and to implement the program in the most effective way possible. Using what has been said in earlier chapters as a basis, how might we set up a training program especially for instructional leadership?

This training, I emphasize, should be offered to teachers as well as to administrators, supervisors, and evaluators. Even if teachers do not take on the responsibility of collegial supervision, they still will benefit from knowing additional strategies and interpersonal skills. They can apply observational techniques and categories to their own teaching, and they will have a common language and understanding with their observers. The training may also prepare them for the next rung on the career ladder.

Content of the Program

One approach is to identify broad areas of knowledge or competence and then to break these down into possible courses. One such broad area contains the conceptual bases for understanding the big picture. Colleges of education have often called this area "foundations" and have included courses in educational philosophy, history, sociology, and the like. A course in the foundations of curriculum might also fit.

Another area of concern to instructional leadership deals with the structure that supports the instructional system. Management, organization, human resources, environment, facilities, and equipment fit in this category.

Another appropriate area has to do with the delivery of instruction. We have tended to call this department "curriculum and instruction." It is concerned with methodology, strategies, materials, models of teaching, and subject matter.

The final area is evaluation. Courses in educational psychology, tests and measurements, teacher evaluation, and diagnosis of learning problems fit this category.

New technology is bringing changes in at least three of the basic areas of our training operation: instructional delivery, evaluation, and organization. Will the foundations also change? Will computer science or electrical engineering be more fundamental disciplines for education than philosophy or psychology? Instructional leadership will be concerned with these revolutionary issues. We have felt secure that we know what the basic subjects are for elementary education: reading, writing, and arithmetic. Yet hand calculators and desk computers make long division and square root calculation by hand obsolete in most cases. Word processors have builtin spelling checkers to help weak spellers. Computers that read print and translate it into oral language are just over the horizon. Where shall we stop in this reordering of all the educational verities?

The Foundation of Instruction*

We need, first, to admit that instruction (though it may look different in the future) has a nature. It is concerned with growing, forming, training, and developing. It has as its subjects individuals and society. Instruction serves to develop the individual's theoretical, moral, technical, aesthetic, and motor skills and understandings. Instruction inculcates into each member the values, ideas, uses, customs, and norms accepted by the larger society or promotes change and innovation within the same group. The ends of instruction or education are educated persons: citizens, specialists, experts, and technicians, as well as the values these persons hold, such as freedom or

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*I am indebted to Francisco Caracheo-Garcia, whose classical training in philosophy, Greek, and Latin helped to organize this material.

democracy. The foundational area of our program will thus encompass the nature, subjects, functions, and ends of instruction.

The Structure of Instruction

The structural area of the program will be concerned with organizational matters, personnel, facilities, and environment. Topics of organizational concern will include authority, communication, regulation, motivation, and innovation. How these can change in the future are illustrated in fiction about the Brave New World or Big Brother. The personnel in the system, in addition to teachers, include the board of directors and other staff, both white collar and blue collar.

Facilities such as libraries, laboratories, studios, gymnasiums, fields, and buildings affect instruction, hence are of concern to leaders. Other factors of the environment such as lighting, acoustics, gardens, adornments, and setting also affect instruction.

Instructional Delivery

The area of instructional delivery includes the means, materials, methods, and content. The means include such devices as blackboards, motion picture projectors, television, telescopes, and computers. Materials may include books, films, maps, models, puzzles, blocks, and software. Methods include lecture, group discussion, direct instruction, questioning, computer-assisted instruction, and computer-managed instruction. Content covers subjects such as reading, arts, social studies, mathematics, and language.

Evaluation

Topics to be studied in the evaluation area include data collection, analysis, diagnosis, measurement, and research. Leaders need the means to evaluate programs, materials, teachers, students, methods, and goals.

Essential Techniques of Instructional Leadership

In addition to the above content areas, our model includes training in several techniques of supervision and evaluation.

Observational systems will include methods for recording teacher verbal and nonverbal behavior such as questions, responses to students, directions, control statements, and explanations. Other techniques track movement of teacher and students around the room, verbal interaction patterns, students' at-task and off-task behavior. Methods for using audiotape and videotape will also be included.

Teaching strategies in wide variety will be studied so that observers can help teachers analyze their performance in respect to the model of teach-

ing being used. Methods of analysis appropriate to the various models or strategies of teaching will be a part of the curriculum.

Conference techniques will be studied and practiced so that the participants will become skillful at planning with teachers, giving them feedback, and helping them set productive goals and experiment with alternatives to increase their effectiveness.

Research on teacher effectiveness will give participants some basic criteria to apply to their analysis of teaching and teacher evaluation. Summaries of studies that have related student achievement with teacher behavior will be emphasized.

Techniques of evaluation—including formal report writing, plans of assistance for teachers with deficiencies, and dismissal procedures—will also be a part of the training program. Although the emphasis will be on instructional improvement, one needs to know what to do when teachers with serious problems do not improve.

Legal aspects of the supervision/evaluation process need to be understood. There are limits to the supervisor's domain (making medical or psychiatric diagnoses, for example), and the teacher's rights to due process need to be protected.

Curriculum

The instructional leader must deal with curriculum as well as with teachers, probably simultaneously. A seminal work, and the most enduring, is by Ralph Tyler (1949). The basic idea is most reasonable, almost obvious, after Tyler explains it.

We start by identifying our objectives or outcomes. Next we look for materials and activities that will lead to our objectives and that are appropriate for our target population. When we consider who the curriculum is for, the method of presentation becomes important along with the content. The final phase is designing or selecting some way of evaluating whether the objectives have been achieved. When all these tasks are to be accomplished by a curriculum committee or other group, the instructional leader will have need for all the knowledge, skills, and techniques we have mentioned plus a few more.

One of the additional areas of expertise for curriculum developers is politics. Curricula do not exist in vacuums; many special interest groups are interested in the school curriculum. Evolution vs. creationism is one persistent example. Nationalism and free enterprise are other topics of perpetual concern.

This training program for instructional leaders is not just a pipe dream. It has been tested on four successive cohorts from Canada's Prairie Provinces and it has been well received. Similar programs are underway in Alberta, the Yukon, and Oregon.

Conclusion

Most teachers who voluntarily undertake a program of instructional improvement that includes peer observation by colleagues who have been trained in systematic observation techniques find it useful and beneficial. Some principals are able to function as colleagues in a peer observation program; others find it difficult to establish the level of trust necessary to be accepted by teachers as truly helpful.

There are several reasons for this difficulty according to the teachers we've interviewed, and the reasons vary among individuals. A few principals deliberately emphasize evaluation through judgmental statements, ignoring the data that both observer and teacher had agreed would be recorded. Moreover, they dominate the postobservation conference.

A few principals appear to gain complete acceptance as colleagues or collaborators. Two of the factors of acceptance that teachers identify are

- a willingness to be observed teaching as well as to observe another's teaching
- a personal style that is approachable, empathic, supportive, enthusiastic, flexible

Teachers have also described principals who were supportive and enthusiastic about the program but not personally involved in it. The personal involvement of the leader appears to be very important to teachers who want more than pro forma "evaluation." In one view, "analysis of teaching" is a subtopic of "feedback" within the cycle of clinical supervision: plan, observe, feedback. This perspective assumes the availability of an observer, which is often not the case. Many teachers are rarely observed by another educator, and when they are it is for the purpose of a "ritualistic" formal evaluation rather than for personal and professional growth.

Teaching deserves to be analyzed, especially by the teacher. Doing so with the help of a trusted, respected, competent colleague is to be preferred, but much useful self-analysis can be accomplished using adaptations of the same techniques that work in a collaborative mode.

We admire the role a colleague can play, but we also regard self–

analysis as a desirable activity. With or without the enriched perception a peer can provide, the teacher needs something to look at, listen to, or analyze; someplace to head for, that is, a goal; and some way to get there, a strategy.

Other variables that affect the analysis of teaching are:

- the setting, situation, and organization (structure) within which the teaching takes place
- the inherent information-processing style of the teacher, especially as it affects interactions with students and colleagues
- the range of strategies, methods, and techniques (skills) of teaching that can be employed, both by teachers and leaders
- the variations in leadership styles among leaders and followers as they affect teachers interacting with students, teachers interacting with colleagues, and teachers interacting with administrators

These variables need to be addressed in the next decade with more vigor and competence than has been evident in past decades.

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